

Effect of Disinfection of Drinking Water with Ozone or Chlorine Dioxide on Survival of *Cryptosporidium parvum* Oocysts

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Demineralized water was seeded with controlled numbers of oocysts of *Cryptosporidium parvum* purified from fresh calf feces and subjected to different treatments with ozone or chlorine dioxide. The disinfectants were neutralized by sodium thiosulfate, and neonatal mice were inoculated intragastrically and sacrificed 7 days later for enumeration of oocyst production. Preliminary trials indicated that a minimum infection level of 1,000 oocysts (0.1-ml inoculum) per mouse was necessary to induce 100% infection. Treatment of water containing 10^4 oocysts per ml with 1.11 mg of ozone per liter (concentration at time zero [C_0]) for 6 min totally eliminated the infectivity of the oocysts for neonatal mice. A level of 2.27 mg of ozone per liter (C_0) was necessary to inactivate water containing 5×10^5 oocysts per ml within 8 min. Also, 0.4 mg of chlorine dioxide per liter (C_0) significantly reduced infectivity within 15 min of contact, although some oocysts remained viable.

Cryptosporidium parvum is a protozoan belonging to the class *Sporozoa*, which infects primarily the small intestines of most mammalian species. The parasite is a common etiologic agent associated with diarrhea in neonatal calves (26). Infected animals excrete large numbers of oocysts (11, 12, 22), which may soil drinking water resources (24). Surface water running through cattle pastures was shown to contain up to 6×10^5 oocysts per liter (15).

The first documented cases of human cryptosporidiosis were reported in 1976 (19, 20), but relatively few were subsequently diagnosed until cryptosporidiosis was reported to be a life-threatening disease in patients with acquired immune deficiency syndrome (8, 14, 23). Now cryptosporidiosis is accepted as a common cause of acute, self-limiting diarrheal disease in immunocompetent hosts worldwide (7). Fecal-oral spread among humans and animals and ingestion of contaminated water appear to be the principal modes of transmission (5, 10, 24).

The fact that surface and ground water may be contaminated by cryptosporidial oocysts and the lack of effective treatment (7) stress the importance of techniques to clear drinking water of this parasite. Oocysts of *Cryptosporidium* spp. may remain viable in aqueous suspensions for up to 12 months at 4°C (4). Few commercial disinfectants have been found to be effective in penetrating oocysts of the parasite (1, 2, 21), and neither the usual chlorination of drinking water nor normal water filtration systems remove oocysts effectively (10). Because ozone and chlorine dioxide have been used as alternatives to hypochlorite to disinfect water, we decided to study the possible influence of these disinfectants on the viability of cryptosporidial oocysts in drinking water.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals and husbandry. A total of 39 coccidium-free litters of Swiss OF1 mice maintained with the dams in separate litters were used during the experiments. All animals were kept at 23°C in plastic cages (North Kent Plastic Cages Ltd., Dartford, Kent, England) with wire mesh tops

and wood shavings for bedding and received a commercial all-mash pelleted feed (AO3; Usine d'Alimentation Rationnelle, Villemoisson, France) and water ad libitum.

Purification of oocysts. Two- to three-week-old calves from a large fattening plant were screened individually for excretion of *C. parvum* oocysts by carbol fuchsin stain (9). Fresh fecal material was collected by rectal sampling of calves excreting large numbers of *C. parvum*. The material was suspended immediately 1:1 in cold 5% (wt/vol) aqueous potassium dichromate solution and stored at 4°C until purification within 48 h. All purification steps were done at 4°C. Feces were washed through sieves (Endocotts Ltd., London, England) with meshes of 150 and 45 μ m, respectively, and the resulting fluid was centrifuged at $500 \times g$ for 5 min. The sediment was suspended in 20 ml of water and 20 ml of diethyl ether after three washings with distilled water. The tube was then shaken in an inverted position for 30 s with a Heidolph shaking device. Subsequently, the suspension was spun down at $500 \times g$ for 10 min and the top three layers were decanted. This step was repeated until the sediment was free of lipids. After further washing at $500 \times g$ for 5 min, the sediment was suspended in distilled water. One-milliliter samples of the resulting suspension were then passaged on a discontinuous Percoll (Pharmacia Fine Chemicals, Uppsala, Sweden) gradient constituted of four 2.5-ml layers with densities of 1.13, 1.09, 1.05, and 1.01 g/ml and centrifuged at $650 \times g$ for 15 min. The band containing purified oocysts was then removed, washed twice at $500 \times g$ for 5 min, and suspended in distilled water. The number of oocysts present in 1 mm³ of suspension was counted in a modified Neubauer hemacytometer after 0.2 ml of suspension was mixed with 0.8 ml of malachite green (malachite green, 0.16 g; sodium dodecyl sulfate, 0.1 g; distilled water, 100 ml). The suspension was then diluted to the desired concentrations. The total organic carbon content of the suspension was determined with a Technicon AutoAnalyzer II by industrial method 451-76W.

Homogenization procedure. The effects of different homogenization methods on the recovery of oocysts were evaluated. Therefore, 8×10^5 oocysts were mixed with the guts of

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2-day-old mice in 5 ml of phosphate-buffered saline. Intestines were minced with a pair of scissors, followed by repeated passage of the mixture through 18- and 19-gauge needles, or they were subjected to ultrasonication, or they were homogenized by Ultra-Turrax (Janke & Kunkel KG, Staufen, Federal Republic of Germany) (three times for 10 s each time). Passage through 18- and 19-gauge needles did not result in destruction of intestinal villi sufficient to remove most oocysts. Ultrasonication disrupted villi but resulted in loss of ca. 38% of the oocysts and indentation of the walls of others. Homogenization resulted in loss of up to 41% of the oocysts but was adopted for the studies described below because the oocysts appeared microscopically normal.

Ozonization procedure. Ozone was generated in an Ozon-lab CFD device (Chemie und Filter GmbH, Heidelberg, Federal Republic of Germany) and bubbled through demineralized water (Milli-Q; specific resistance, 10 MΩ/cm; Millipore Corp., Bedford, Mass.) for 30 min. The concentration of O_3 was determined iodometrically. Ten milliliters of a buffered potassium iodide solution (20 g of KI, 13.6 g of KH_2PO_4 , and 14.2 g of Na_2HPO_4 made up to 1 liter) was placed in a volumetric flask and brought to 250 ml with the ozonized water sample. Titration was started with 0.005 N $Na_2S_2O_3$ and ended with 2 ml of 5 N H_2SO_4 . After iodometry, 14.4 ml of ozonized water was mixed with 1.6 ml of oocyst suspension in a quartz spectrophotometric cell. At 1-min intervals during exposure of the oocysts, the remaining O_3 was evaluated by measuring the UV absorption of the solution at 254 nm in a Perkin-Elmer λ1 spectrophotometer.

Production of chlorine dioxide. Chlorine dioxide was generated by reaction of diluted sodium chlorite (1 g of $NaClO_2$ per liter) in bidistilled water with acetic anhydride, as described previously (17). The stock solution, containing approximately 50 mg of ClO_2 per liter, was titrated iodometrically first in a neutral environment and then in an acid environment as described previously (18a). Subsequently, a working solution was prepared by diluting the stock solution immediately before adding oocysts. ClO_2 concentrations before, during, and after treatment were determined spectrophotometrically with acid chrome violet at 548 nm in a Perkin-Elmer λ1 spectrophotometer (16).

Experimental infection and enumeration of oocysts. Two- to six-day-old neonatal mice were inoculated intragastrically with 0.1-ml oocyst suspensions by using a 16-mm-long 26-gauge needle fitted with plastic tubing. At 7 days postinfection (p.i.), the mice were sacrificed. The total small and large intestines were recovered in 5 ml of cold phosphate-buffered saline containing 1.0 mg of streptomycin per ml and 1.0×10^3 IU of penicillin per ml and stored at 4°C for a maximum of 48 h. The total oocyst contents of the intestine were evaluated after the guts were homogenized with an Ultra-Turrax (three times for 10 s each time). Subsequently, the number of oocysts present was counted in a hemacytometer as described above. The sediment of negative samples was reexamined by carbol fuchsin staining following centrifugation.

Experimental design. (i) **Experiment 1.** Five litters of neonatal mice were inoculated with 0, 10, 10^2 , 10^3 , or 10^4 *C. parvum* oocysts, respectively. The same protocol was repeated with another group of five litters. At 6 to 9 days p.i., all mice were sacrificed for oocyst counts.

(ii) **Experiments 2 to 5.** Oocyst suspensions containing 10 times the desired end concentrations were mixed in a proportion of 1:10 with demineralized water containing O_3 or ClO_2 . The different oocyst concentrations, the O_3 or ClO_2 dosages at the start of exposure, and the exposure times

used are listed in Table 1. At the end of exposure, the remaining O_3 or ClO_2 was neutralized by adding 0.03 ml of a 0.1 N solution of $Na_2S_2O_3$ (Tritrisol 9950; E. Merck AG, Darmstadt, Federal Republic of Germany). Subsequent litters of neonatal mice were inoculated with 0.1 ml of exposed or nonexposed suspensions. At 7 days p.i., mice were sacrificed for oocyst counts.

Statistics. Mean oocyst output was tested by the nonparametric Wilcoxon Mann-Whitney U test, whereas the numbers of infected mice were analyzed by the χ^2 test (25).

RESULTS

Experiment 1. Experimental infection of suckling mice with different numbers of oocysts resulted in detectable infection only after gavage of 10^3 or more oocysts. The highest oocyst numbers were detected at 7 days p.i., when 100% of the mice were found to be infected. At 6 days p.i., 4 of 7 mice inoculated with 10^4 oocysts were positive, and only 4 of 12 mice inoculated with 10^3 oocysts were positive at 8 days p.i. Therefore, all suckling mice were sacrificed at 7 days p.i. in subsequent experiments.

Experiments 2 to 5. During the first minute during which the oocyst suspensions were exposed to ozone, the ozone concentration dropped by 12 to 26%, depending on the oocyst suspensions. During the next 5 to 7 min, another drop of 8 to 33% was observed. As for chlorine dioxide, a 43% drop was established during the first minute of contact. The different initial and endpoint concentrations of ozone and chlorine dioxide are listed in Table 2, as are the total organic C values of the concentrated oocyst suspensions before treatment.

Both ozone and chlorine dioxide reduced the infection ratio of *C. parvum* oocysts considerably ($P < 0.05$). The effects of different exposure periods and treatments on the infectivity of *C. parvum* oocysts are shown in Table 1. The data of experiment 2 show that the effect depended on the number of oocysts present. Addition of 2.25 mg of O_3 per liter to water containing 10^4 oocysts per ml resulted in infection of only 1 of 9 mice after 2 min of contact, whereas similar treatment of water containing 5×10^5 oocysts per ml was not able to prevent infection (experiments 2 and 3). After longer contact periods, only ozone was capable of rendering contaminated water noninfectious to mice. A concentration of 1.1 mg/liter for 6 min was sufficient to disinfect water containing 10^4 oocysts per ml (experiment 4), and 2.25 mg/liter for 8 min served to disinfect water containing 5×10^5 oocysts per ml (experiments 2 and 3). Chlorine dioxide reduced the infectivity of contaminated water considerably, but some oocysts remained viable after 30 min of contact (experiment 5).

DISCUSSION

Cryptosporidiosis affects a wide range of mammals, birds, fish, and reptiles. In contrast to other coccidia, *C. parvum* lacks host specificity and animal strains may infect humans as well. Infected animals excrete large numbers of oocysts, which soil drinking water resources. In the United States, about 15,000 human cases have been attributed to consumption of contaminated drinking water (13). The presence of oocysts was also shown in a drinking water reservoir which caused an outbreak in 104 human patients in England (24).

Important to the understanding of why a small number of oocysts can cause severe infections in humans are some particular aspects of the life cycle of cryptosporidia which

TABLE 1. Oocyst production in neonatal mice inoculated with different numbers of *C. parvum* oocysts exposed or not exposed to ozone or chlorine dioxide

Expt no.	No. of oocysts/ml	Treatment and (dosage [mg/liter] at time zero)	Exposure time (min)	No. of positive mice/total ^a	Mean \pm SEM log ₁₀ oocyst production ^a	% Reduction of oocyst production
2	1 \times 10 ⁴	Ozone (2.25)	0	6/7, a	5.23 \pm 1.35, a	0
			2	1/9, b	<4, b	>98
			8	0/8, b	0, b	100
	1 \times 10 ⁵	Ozone (2.25)	0	4/5, a	5.20 \pm 1.50, a	0
			2	3/5, ac	4.11 \pm 1.25, b	81
			8	1/7, bc	<4, b	>99
	5 \times 10 ⁵	Ozone (2.25)	0	5/5, a	6.52 \pm 0.10, a	0
			2	4/4, a	4.67 \pm 0.85, b	93
			8	0/7, b	0, c	100
3	5 \times 10 ⁵	None		8/8, a	6.82 \pm 0.16, a	0
		Ozone (0.59)	2	7/8, a	5.10 \pm 1.44, b	75
			5	3/8, b	<4, c	>99
			8	6/10, b	4.42 \pm 1.31, c	96
		Ozone (1.06)	2	13/13, a	6.20 \pm 0.35, b	72
			5	3/4, a	4.48 \pm 1.02, c	99
			8	5/9, b	4.17 \pm 1.27, c	95
		Ozone (2.27)	2	7/7, a	5.40 \pm 1.06, b	86
			5	2/10, bc	<4, c	99
			8	0/4, c	0, c	100
4	1 \times 10 ⁴	None		7/7, a	5.82 \pm 0.67, a	0
		Ozone (1.11)	2	4/9, b	<4, bc	92
			4	2/6, bd	<4, bc	99
			6	0/7, cd	0, b	100
5	1 \times 10 ⁴	Chlorine dioxide (0.31)	8	5/9, b	4.11 \pm 1.13, c	88
			16	6/11, b	<4, c	97
5	1 \times 10 ⁴	Chlorine dioxide (0.43)	0	13/13, a	6.35 \pm 0.58, a	0
			5	13/13, a	5.58 \pm 1.04, a	48.6
			15	4/11, b	<4, b	93.5
			30	4/13, b	<4, b	94.3

^a Means or numbers followed by different lowercase letters are significantly different ($P < 0.05$).

differs from that of most other mammalian and avian coccidia by two important features (3). (i) *Cryptosporidium* oocysts sporulate within the host and thus are infective when passed into the feces. Besides, about 20% of cryptosporidial oocysts are thin walled, which allows sporozoites to be released endogenously and to reinstate a new development cycle. (ii) First-generation meronts do not always immediately generate second-generation meronts but may recycle and cause autoinfection. Both of these features explain why a small number of oocysts can cause severe infection and why it is necessary to clear drinking water of viable *Cryptosporidium* oocysts. Moreover, no effective treatment for cryptosporidiosis exists (7) and until now, few commercial disinfectants, such as 10% formol or 5% ammonia, were able to inactivate oocysts of *Cryptosporidium* spp. (1, 2, 21). Normal chlorination levels in drinking water have been shown to be ineffective, even after 18 h of contact. Only sand filtration may reduce oocyst concentrations, but it does not eliminate them completely (15).

The results of the above-described experiments indicate that both ozone and chlorine dioxide constitute a means of disinfecting drinking water from *Cryptosporidium* oocysts. During our trials, a minimum infection level of 10⁴ oocysts per ml was used. This was necessary because the preliminary data from trial 1 indicated that a minimum of 10³ oocysts (0.1-ml inoculum) was required to establish infection in all of the mice inoculated. This is similar to the findings of Ernest et al. (6), who also found a 100% infectious dose of 500 to 1,000 oocysts. This level is a factor of 1,000 higher than the levels detected in surface waters (15).

Several water-supplying companies use ozone and chlorine dioxide to disinfect water. They maintain a minimal residual ozone concentration of 0.4 mg of O₃ per liter for 6 min by injecting 1.5 to 4 mg of O₃ per liter of water. This is similar to our experimental conditions and is sufficient to disinfect water containing less than 10⁴ oocysts per ml. The operating costs range from 20 to 25 Wh/g of O₃. Chlorine dioxide is applied for postdisinfection of drinking water and

TABLE 2. Total organic carbon contents of oocyst suspensions and initial and end concentrations of disinfectants used

Expt no.	Total organic C of oocyst suspension (mg/liter) ^a	Treatment	Maximal exposure time (min)	Disinfectant concn (mg/liter)	
				Start	End
2	3.5	Ozone	8	2.25	1.80
3	14.5	Ozone	8	0.59	0.24
			8	1.06	0.51
			8	2.27	1.49
4	1.5	Ozone	6	1.11	0.77
5	2.0	Chlorine dioxide	16	0.31	0.07
		Chlorine dioxide	30	0.43	0.22

^a Before dilution of the suspensions 1 to 10 in the respective disinfectants.

maintenance of an active residual oxidant in the water distribution system (18b). The operating costs of ClO₂ generation range from 0.3 to 0.6 U.S. cents per gram. In Belgium, the residual concentration of ClO₂ allowed is 0.25 mg/liter, and in the Federal Republic of Germany it is 0.20 mg/liter while the United States recommends a limit of 1 mg/liter for chlorine dioxide, chlorite, and chlorate together. Since treatment of drinking water with chlorine dioxide permits an active residual concentration for several hours, it seems reasonable to assume that the product might kill all oocysts of *C. parvum* present in slightly contaminated water. This should be confirmed by further experiments.

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depth of 90 cm. We then averaged these composite values to establish the mean soil water electrical conductivity.

Differences among data for the three years were larger than differences between irrigation methods. This was caused, in large part, by differences in rainfall and management of the water table depth during the winter. Soil salinity early in the growing season was significantly lower than later in the season.

Of paramount concern in the organic soils of the Delta is the change in the relation between salinity of irrigation water and of soil water as irrigation water salinity increases. For 1981, the year when irrigation water salinity had the greatest influence on soil water salinity, the rate of change was 0.94 for subirrigation (fig. 3), and 0.95 for sprinkled treatments (not shown). Thus, the relation between soil water and irrigation water salinity was less than 1:1 for every year of the study and for both irrigation methods. In other words, increasing the salinity of irrigation water above 0.2 dS/m (about 130 ppm) should only increase average soil salinity in the root zone by a like amount if winter rainfall is normal (about 400 mm) and irrigation, leaching, and groundwater control practices are similar to those for the subirrigated treatments of the field experiment. From the relationship given in figure 3 for the combined subirrigation data, the electrical conductivity of the irrigation water that accompanied the threshold value of soil water salinity for corn grain (3.7 dS/m) would be 1.9 dS/m. For below-normal rainfall as in 1981, electrical conductivity of irrigation water at the threshold value for grain would be 0.8 dS/m.

In an environmental impact report on the Delta by the State Water Resources Control Board in 1978, average soil water salinity was reported to be about eight times greater than the salinity of the irrigation water in a number of fields in the Delta where irrigation water salinity probably averaged 0.3 dS/m. Thus, the expected average soil water salinity based on the earlier report would be just over 2 dS/m, which is essentially the average value we found in this field trial when irrigation water salinity was 0.2 dS/m (fig. 3). Based on the results of the field trial, however, the ratio is not constant; the factor decreases as irrigation water salinity increases.

Summary

In these studies, we found that above-average rainfall and maintaining the water table about 1 meter below the surface effectively leached the upper soil profile. Under present conditions of low salinity in the irrigation water and

with normal winter rainfall, soil salinity is about 8 times greater than the salinity of the irrigation water. As the salinity of the irrigation water increases, however, the factor 8 becomes substantially smaller. At the soil water salinity threshold for corn grain (3.7 dS/m), the factor is 2.3 for subirrigation, which

results in a maximum value of 1.9 dS/m (about 1,200 ppm) for the salinity of the irrigation water without yield loss under normal conditions. With subirrigation and below-normal rainfall as in 1981, the maximum salinity of the irrigation water without yield loss would be 0.8 dS/m (about 500 ppm). □

Salt sensitivity of corn at various growth stages

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As a followup to the field test of salt tolerance of corn, we attempted to determine in greenhouse studies the salt sensitivity of corn at various growth stages. If corn is more sensitive during one stage than another, the salinity of the irrigation water could be regulated during the season to minimize salt injury during the more sensitive stage. Standards are needed, particularly during droughts and during the later part of the growing season when the water supply may be limited.

The objectives of this study were to determine: (1) the sensitivity of corn to soil salinity during germination, emergence, and seedling growth stages and (2) how rapidly and to what extent the salinity of the irrigation water can be increased during the cropping season without decreasing yield.

Experimental procedures

We measured germination in covered 9 x 9 cm germination dishes containing 20 corn seeds buried to a depth of 1 cm in presalinized organic soil. Sixteen cultivars were tested at eight levels of soil salinity with four replications. Germination dishes were kept in the dark at a constant temperature of 22°C. Germination counts were made daily over a period of two weeks.

In the emergence and seedling experiment, corn was grown in the greenhouse in 55-liter plastic pots filled with Rindge muck topsoil obtained from near Terminous, California. Treatments consisted of six irrigation waters having electrical conductivities of 0.2, 1, 3, 5, 7, and 9 dS/m, with each replicated 12 times. Each replication contained four pots with a different cultivar in each

pot. Four corn cultivars were planted in each of four separate trials. Nine cultivars — seven field corn and two sweet corn — were tested. Pioneer 3780 was grown in each trial as a benchmark cultivar. At one, two, and three weeks after planting, we harvested plants to measure dry matter production.

In the experiment on increasing salinity during the growing season, Bonanza, a sweet corn cultivar, was grown in the same pots used in the preceding experiment. The experiment consisted of 18 treatments, each replicated four times with four pots per replication. The same six saline waters were also used in this experiment.

The first six treatments were irrigated throughout the experiment without changing the salinity of the irrigation water during the season, as is typical of a salt tolerance trial. The remaining 12 treatments were designed to determine the maximum salinity in the root zone that corn could tolerate at three growth stages during the season without a loss in yield. The salinity of the irrigation water in these treatments was increased by different amounts after 30 or 60 days. The three 30-day periods represent the vegetative, tasseling, and grain-filling stages during the growing season.

Results

Germination tests in salinized organic soil indicated that corn is much more tolerant during germination than at the seedling stage. Some cultivars appeared more tolerant during germination than others. For example, seven days after planting, germination of Pioneer 3369A, Funk G4141, and Northrup King PX32 was reduced significantly at soil water

salinities above 8 dS/m, but several other cultivars germinated as well at 15 dS/m as in nonsaline soil (fig. 1).

In the emergence and seedling trials, increasing the salt concentration of irrigation water up to an electrical conductivity of 9 dS/m delayed emergence but did not affect the emergence percentage at six days after planting. The average soil water salinity in the seedling root zone was about 0.3 dS/m higher than irrigation water salinity. These results confirm the germination data obtained in petri dishes.

Seedling growth during the first three weeks was much more sensitive to salinity than was germination. Dry matter production of the nine cultivars when irrigated with 9 dS/m water averaged between 44 and 59 percent of those of the controls (see table). The average threshold soil water salinity for seedling growth (the maximum salinity without growth reduction) was 0.7 dS/m, but there were differences among cultivars. In this experiment, this threshold would have been reached with 0.4 dS/m irrigation water, which is well below that reported for grain production. For each dS/m increase in salinity above the threshold, growth decreased 4.9 percent in all cultivars.

The effects of increasing salinity during either tasseling or grain-filling stages of growth were compared with salinity treatments that were unchanged throughout the season. Salinity in the irrigation water significantly affected grain and stover yield when increased above 5 dS/m at all three stages of growth, but not when increased only during the tasseling and grain-filling stages (fig. 2). Even 9 dS/m irrigation water did not reduce yield significantly when applied after 30 days of growth. Where salinity was the same during all three stages, grain yield decreased about 10 percent per unit increase in soil water salinity above a threshold of 5.5 dS/m.

Conclusion

The results of this study agree with those of other investigators, which indicate that corn is most sensitive during the vegetative growth stage. Although salinity delays germination, corn is most tolerant at that stage of growth. Of 16 cultivars tested, all but three germinated within seven days at soil water salinities up to 10 dS/m (about 6,400 ppm) and seven germinated as well at 15 dS/m (about 9,600 ppm) as in the nonsaline soils. In separate pot experiments, emer-

gence of nine corn cultivars was delayed by increasing soil salinity, but the final emergence percentage after six days was unaffected by soil water salinity up to 9.3 dS/m.

Seedling growth, on the other hand, is sensitive to soil salinity. Shoot growth during the first three weeks was reduced approximately 5 percent for each unit increase in soil water salinity above 0.7 dS/m (about 450 ppm).

Salt tolerance during later stages of growth was much higher than during the seedling stage. Salt tolerance response curves for Bonanza, a sweet corn cultivar, showed that fresh ear yields decreased 10 percent per unit increase in average soil water salinity above 5.5 dS/m (about 3,500 ppm). These data indicate that the salt tolerance of sweet corn in the greenhouse was greater than that of field corn grown in the field.

Increasing the salinity of the irrigation water to 9 dS/m at the tasseling and grain-filling stages did not significantly decrease grain yield below that obtained where salinity was constant throughout the growing season. If water of acceptable quality is used during vegetative growth, poorer quality water can be used during and after tasseling without reducing yields. □

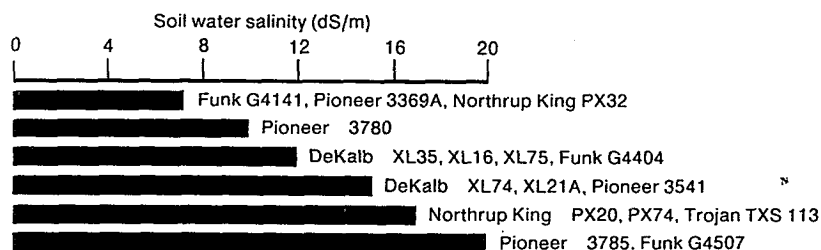


Fig. 1. Some corn cultivars were more salt-tolerant than others during germination, but for all, soil salinity had to exceed 7 dS/m before germination was reduced.

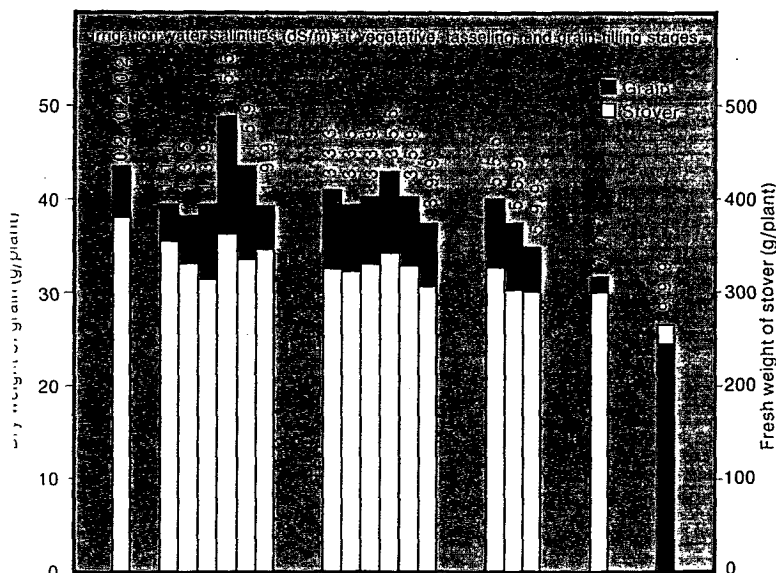


Fig. 2. Grain and stover yields dropped when irrigation water salinity exceeded 5 dS/m at the vegetative stage of growth, but during the tasseling and grain-filling stages, salinity could exceed 5 dS/m without further reduction.

Influence of irrigation water salinity on shoot growth of nine corn cultivars 21 days after planting

Cultivar	Control dry matter production g/plant	Relative dry matter production at following soil water salinities (dS/m)				
		1	3	5	7	9
Pioneer 3780*	0.71	100	93	81	74	57
Pioneer 3906†	0.72	91	89	79	69	54
Pioneer 3541†	0.62	93	92	80	71	59
DeKalb XL75†	0.70	92	92	79	69	59
Northrup King PX20†	0.82	92	88	74	71	51
Northrup King PX74‡	0.68	99	89	76	63	55
Funk G4507‡	0.76	87	82	70	57	44
Bantam Golden Cross‡	0.56	117	103	75	79	57
Bonanza‡	0.40	108	99	92	83	56

* Treatment means averaged over four trials.

† Treatment means averaged over two trials.

‡ Treatment means for one trial.